

Mammalian phylogenetic diversity–area relationships at a continental scale

FLORENT MAZEL,^{1,2,7} JULIEN RENAUD,^{1,2} FRANÇOIS GUILHAUMON,³ DAVID MOUILLOT,^{4,5} DOMINIQUE GRAVEL,⁶
AND WILFRIED THULLER^{1,2}

¹Université Grenoble Alpes, Laboratoire d'Écologie Alpine (LECA), F-38000 Grenoble, France

²CNRS, Laboratoire d'Écologie Alpine (LECA), F-38000 Grenoble, France

³IRD, MARBEC Université de Montpellier, Montpellier, France

⁴MARBEC Université de Montpellier, Montpellier, France

⁵ARC Centre of Excellence for Coral Reef Studies, James Cook University, Townsville, Queensland 4811 Australia

⁶Université du Québec à Rimouski, Département de Biologie, Chimie et Géographie, Québec, Québec G5L 3A1 Canada

Abstract. In analogy to the species–area relationship (SAR), one of the few laws in ecology, the phylogenetic diversity–area relationship (PDAR) describes the tendency of phylogenetic diversity (PD) to increase with area. Although investigating PDAR has the potential to unravel the underlying processes shaping assemblages across spatial scales and to predict PD loss through habitat reduction, it has been little investigated so far. Focusing on PD has noticeable advantages compared to species richness (SR), since PD also gives insights on processes such as speciation/extinction, assembly rules and ecosystem functioning. Here we investigate the universality and pervasiveness of the PDAR at continental scale using terrestrial mammals as study case. We define the relative robustness of PD (compared to SR) to habitat loss as the area between the standardized PDAR and standardized SAR (i.e., standardized by the diversity of the largest spatial window) divided by the area under the standardized SAR only. This metric quantifies the relative increase of PD robustness compared to SR robustness. We show that PD robustness is higher than SR robustness but that it varies among continents. We further use a null model approach to disentangle the relative effect of phylogenetic tree shape and nonrandom spatial distribution of evolutionary history on the PDAR. We find that, for most spatial scales and for all continents except Eurasia, PDARs are not different from expected by a model using only the observed SAR and the shape of the phylogenetic tree at continental scale. Interestingly, we detect a strong phylogenetic structure of the Eurasian PDAR that can be predicted by a model that specifically account for a finer biogeographical delineation of this continent. In conclusion, the relative robustness of PD to habitat loss compared to species richness is determined by the phylogenetic tree shape but also depends on the spatial structure of PD.

Key words: conservation biogeography; habitat loss; null models; phylogenetic diversity; species–area relationship; strict nested design.

INTRODUCTION

The species–area relationship (SAR) describes the tendency of species richness (SR) to increase with area (Rosenzweig 1995). This relationship is documented for a wide range of taxonomic groups and ecosystems (Guilhaumon et al. 2008, Triantis et al. 2012) and its understanding is central to ecology and conservation biogeography (Rosenzweig 1995, Whittaker et al. 2005). For instance, the SAR is a key tool to estimate species extinctions from habitat destruction and climate change (Pimm and Raven 2000, Thomas et al. 2004, Pereira et al. 2010, Matias et al. 2014). Nevertheless, a SAR approach reduces biological diversity to species richness only and fails to include the amount of evolutionary

history in species assemblages (Mouquet et al. 2012). To fill this gap, the phylogenetic diversity–area relationship (PDAR; Morlon et al. 2011) can help unravel the processes assembling communities across spatiotemporal scales and provides complementary tools for conserving the Tree of Life (Mazel et al. 2014). For instance, translating SAR into PDAR allows to predict the loss of PD through habitat destruction. This prediction is essential since the loss of a given amount of PD or the loss of an entire lineage could have strong negative ecological consequences since distinct lineages are likely to perform different functions (Cadotte et al. 2008, Mouquet et al. 2012).

Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the SAR, such as sampling effects (Rosenzweig 1995), the effect of habitat size on extinction rates (MacArthur and Wilson 1967), the scaling of environmental heterogeneity with area (Kadmon and Allouche 2007) or dispersal limitation (Hubbell 2001). In complement to

Manuscript received 2 October 2014; revised 17 March 2015; accepted 9 April 2015. Corresponding Editor: N. J. B. Kraft.

⁷ E-mail: flo.mazel@gmail.com

the SAR, the PDAR brings unique information about the different processes structuring biodiversity at different spatial scales, helping, for example, to quantify the effects of biotic interactions at small scales vs. biogeographical processes at large scale. A particular feature of the PDAR is that the shape of the phylogenetic tree ultimately drives its relative position to the SAR. A star phylogeny would produce a PDAR proportional to the SAR, while a complete and recent polytomy at the tips of the tree would produce an extreme PDAR that would reach its maximum from the smallest area (see Fig. 1A). In addition to those mechanisms, biogeographic history together with ecological processes should also influence the PDAR (see Fig. 1B). Allopatric speciation and/or competition between close relative species would result in a relatively higher PD than expected for a given SR (overdispersion; Webb et al. 2002, O’Dwyer et al. 2012). Coexistence theory indeed predicts that similar species will compete more strongly than dissimilar species, leading to the exclusion of one of the similar species (HilleRisLambers et al. 2012). If we assume that niche differences are properly portrayed by phylogenetic differences, we predict a phylogenetic overdispersion (i.e., distantly related species co-occur) under competitive interactions (Webb et al. 2002, but see Mayfield and Levine 2010). Reciprocally, low PD may be expected if close relative species tend to co-occur because of shared environmental niches and/or geographic isolation of land mass (phylogenetic clustering; Webb et al. 2002, O’Dwyer et al. 2012; see Fig. 1B). Overall the difference between SAR and PDAR curves is thus very informative on the way the phylogenetic structure of assemblages varies across spatial scales.

In summary, the PDAR is ultimately influenced by (1) the shape of the SAR that depends on species range placement over space (e.g., either clumped or random), (2) the structure of the phylogenetic tree, and (3) the species range placement in regard to the phylogeny (that ultimately depends on eco-evolutionary processes). Since the pioneering work by Morlon et al. (2011), that first introduced PDAR, no study has tried to explain large scale PDARs and to disentangle the relative influence of these three factors.

In this paper, we report the first large-scale analysis of PDAR over the globe for mammal assemblages. We used the calibrated and dated ultrametric phylogenetic tree updated by Fritz et al. (2009) from Bininda-Emonds et al. (2007). We extracted the distribution maps provided by the Mammal Red List Assessment (*available online*)⁸ for 4616 terrestrial species to obtain occurrence data on worldwide grid cells of approximately 110 × 110 km and used a strictly nested design recently published (SNQ; Storch et al. 2012) to produce median SAR and PDAR at a continental scale (i.e., we computed median SR and PD over each spatial scale to

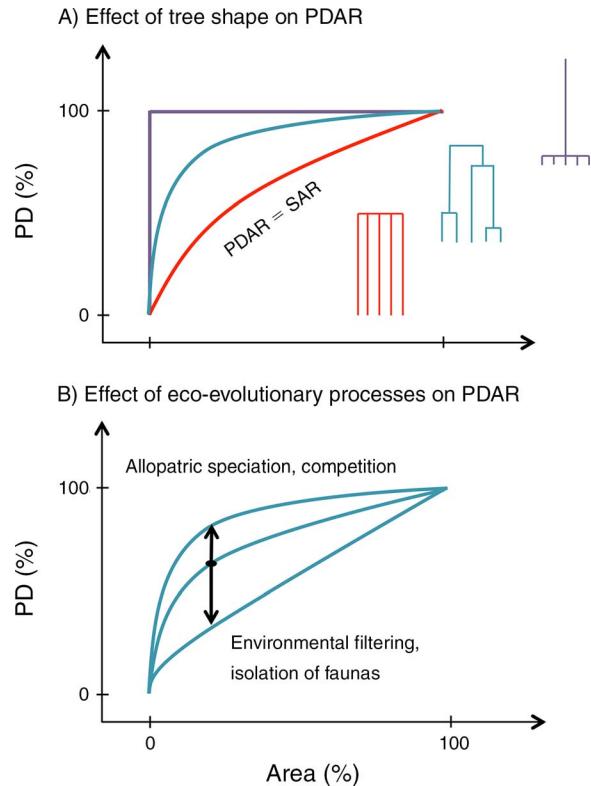


FIG. 1. Expected variation of the standardized phylogenetic diversity–area relationship (PDAR) given (A) different tree shapes and (B) different eco-evolutionary processes. (A) The three standardized PDARs correspond to the three trees depicted above the graph. Note that the red PDAR also corresponds to the observed species–area relationship (SAR) as the red tree is a star phylogeny. (B) Different eco-evolutionary processes may change the PDAR if they act differently among spatial scales. We expect that competition and/or allopatric speciation may relatively increase the phylogenetic diversity (PD) at small scale while environmental filtering and/or geographic isolation of biotas may relatively decrease the PD at small scale.

produce median SAR and PDAR, respectively). First we ask whether PDAR differs from the SAR at a continental scale and how this difference may affect the robustness of PD to habitat loss. To do so we define the relative robustness of PD (compared to SR) to habitat loss as the area between the standardized PDAR and standardized SAR (i.e., standardized by the diversity of the largest spatial window) divided by the area under the standardized SAR only (called the relative area under the curve, AUC_r). This metric quantifies the relative increase of PD robustness compared to SR robustness (Fig. 2). Second, we ask whether PDARs are a simple consequence of the observed SAR and a random sampling of species on the phylogenetic tree or if they also depend on eco-evolutionary processes. Assuming that the continental SAR for mammals can be adequately modelled by a random placement model of species ranges (Storch et al.

⁸ <http://www.iucnredlist.org/>

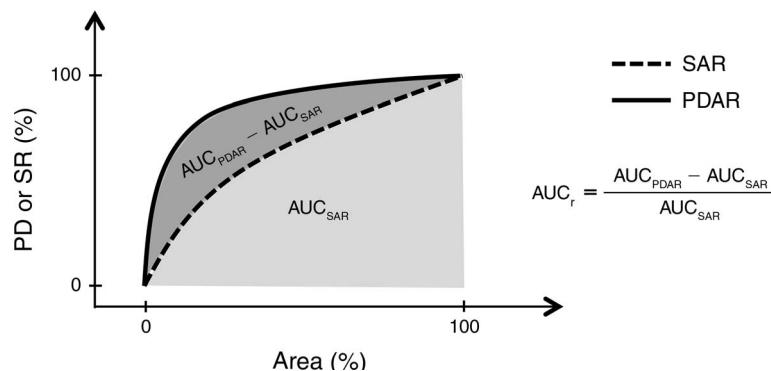


FIG. 2. Hypothetical example to quantify the relative robustness of PD (compared to species richness [SR]) to habitat loss (relative area under the curve [AUC_r]) using PDAR and SAR. The example shows how to quantify the relative PDAR shape by measuring the area between the two curves (SR, PD, and Area are expressed as percentages) and computing AUC_r .

2012), we derive PDAR expectations that only rely on the phylogenetic tree shape. To do so, we use a tip-shuffling null model that keeps the observed species range distribution, SAR and phylogenetic tree shape while shuffling the phylogenetic relationships among species. Third, we ask whether AUC_r depends on the phylogenetic tree shape only (see Fig. 1A) or if it is also an outcome of eco-evolutionary processes (see Fig. 1B). To do so we take advantage of our null model approach to produce null AUC_r expectations. More specifically we estimate the effect of tree structure (see Fig. 1A) on the relative robustness of PD to habitat loss across continents. Our analyses confirm that PD might be more robust than SR to habitat loss but that this higher robustness differs across continents for different reasons.

METHODS

Data sets and diversity metrics

We used the distribution maps provided by the Mammal Red List Assessment (see footnote 8) for 4616 terrestrial species to obtain occurrence data on worldwide grid cells of approximately 110×110 km. The best resolution to use the IUCN maps is still under discussion in the literature (Storch et al. 2012, Jenkins et al. 2013). We here used the resolution commonly used at global scale (Belmaker and Jetz 2011, Storch et al. 2012). This was our basic unit to construct SAR and PDAR. Domestic, aquatic, and semiaquatic mammals were excluded from the analysis.

We used the calibrated and dated ultrametric phylogenetic tree updated by Fritz et al. (2009) from Bininda-Emonds et al. (2007).

To characterize the PD of an assemblage we used the Faith's measure (Faith 1992). This metric represents a richness or volume of diversity (Pavoine and Bonsall 2011) and simply sums up branch lengths of the given species assemblage phylogeny (Rodrigues and Gaston 2002). Faith's measure is an intuitive and relatively simple measure of PD. It is also, by construction, generally highly correlated with SR (Huang et al. 2012,

Tucker and Cadotte 2013). The use of any PD metric theoretically linked with SR in the description of PDAR has been criticized because PDAR would be biased by "spurious artefacts of a statistical relationship between species richness and area" (Helmus and Ives 2012). Here the comparison of the SAR and the PDAR we propose, i.e., with the standardization and the null model that removes the effect of SR on PD (see *Analyzing SAR and PDR: Understanding the absolute value of PDAR*) avoid this artefact while it allows a simple interpretation of the results.

Constructing SAR and PDAR

Median and median absolute deviance (MAD) of SR and PD were reported for each spatial scale (from 110×110 km up to 2200×2200 km) by using the framework proposed by Storch et al. (2012). We do not use mean SR and PD as the data was highly non-normal (see Appendix A for examples of distributions of diversity). It uses a strictly nested quadrat design where a moving window (Leitner and Rosenzweig 1997, Lennon et al. 2001) reports the SR and PD of all possible windows of a given size within a continent. The median and MAD of SR and PD are then computed for each spatial scale. This procedure implies that some cells are counted several time for a given spatial windows and thus some pseudo-replication is inevitably introduced. Nevertheless all designs have their own drawbacks and SNQ have several important advantages (Storch et al. 2012). We implemented the algorithm within a reduced subset of the five continents (see Appendix B for further details) to avoid some border effect, i.e., for each scale (whatever its size), all pixels of the selected area of the continent will be sampled at least one time. The spectrum of spatial scale analyzed was set between 1×1 to 14×14 cells for Australia (i.e., from approximately 110×110 km to 1540×1540 km) and from 1×1 to 20×20 cells for North and South America, Africa, and Eurasia (i.e., from approximately 110×110 km to 2200×2200 km) following Storch et al. (2012). Note that the resulting

curve corresponds to a type I curve in the terminology proposed by Scheiner (2003).

Analyzing SAR and PDAR

Comparing the relative shape of SAR and PDAR.—We compared the shape of PDAR and SAR using two complementary approaches. First we fitted a power model (Rosenzweig 1995) to each SAR and PDAR. We then reported the slope (z) value of the linear model in a log-log space. These values were then used to depict in a simple way the relative shape of PDAR and SAR. Because PDAR and SAR are not necessarily best modelled by a power function (Guilhaumon et al. 2008, Mazel et al. 2014) we also (1) fitted alternative statistical models (see Appendix C) and (2) directly compared PDAR and SAR without an a priori function. As PD is expressed in units of times while SR in number of species, they are not directly comparable. Therefore we used a basic standardization procedure by rescaling each sampling windows PD and SR value by the value reached at the maximum sample size (Mazel et al. 2014). This gives a relative diversity value for each sampling windows, compared to the largest one (that thus represents 100%). We define the relative robustness of PD (compared to SR) to habitat loss as the area between the standardized PDAR and standardized SAR divided by the area under the standardized SAR only (Eq. 1 and Fig. 2).

$$\text{AUC}_r = \frac{\text{AUC}_{\text{PDAR}} - \text{AUC}_{\text{SAR}}}{\text{AUC}_{\text{SAR}}}. \quad (1)$$

If we define the absolute robustness of PD and SR as the AUC under the PDAR and SAR, our metric quantifies the relative increase of absolute PD robustness compared to absolute SR robustness (Fig. 2). To study the relative increase of PD and SR with area we simply computed the local slope (or derivative) of PDAR and SAR on the standardized coordinates assuming a first point of null diversity and area. Indeed when area tends to zero, diversity also necessarily tends to zero (as sampled area becomes smaller than a single individual).

Understanding the absolute value of PDAR.—Second we used a null model approach to describe and investigate the absolute value of PDAR. This approach allows to compare null expectations with the observed PDAR and avoids the bias caused by the correlation between PD and SR.

We chose to use the observed SAR as a starting point because it has already been shown to be modelled by a simple null model where species ranges are randomly distributed within the continent (Storch et al. 2012). Assuming the SAR, we computed a null PDAR expectation by randomly shuffling the tips of the phylogeny within a given pool of species. This procedure breaks the link between species range size/position and phylogenetic relationships but keep unchanged the

distribution of range size and the local species richness (Hardy 2008). By repeating this procedure n times, we were able to assess the significance of the observed PDAR relative to our null expectation (using a two-sided test).

In other words, for each randomization, we (1) shuffled the tips of the phylogeny within a given species pool. The resulting randomized phylogeny was used to (2) compute null PD values for each basic grid cells (approximately 110×110 km) and we (3) applied the methodology described above to compute the resulting null median and MAD PDARs. Such null model may help unravel the determinants of the PDAR. For example we may expect competition (Pigot and Tobias 2013) or environmental filtering to occur at smaller scale, potentially leading to phylogenetic overdispersion or clustering respectively (Webb et al. 2002; but note that competition may also lead to clustering, see Mayfield and Levine [2010]). Also, phylogenetic clustering could be detected at larger scales because of biogeographical effect (Rosenzweig 1995). We used two null models that use either a continental or a biogeographic pool of species. We restricted the analysis of the biogeographic pool of species for Eurasia only because it is the only continent in our design that is a mix of distantly related zoogeographic regions (Wallace 1876, Holt et al. 2013).

Continental pool of species

This null model simply shuffles the tips within the entire continental phylogeny. The significance of the observed values of PDAR was assessed by comparing observed values with 1000 randomized PDARs. We further confirmed this simulation approach by using analytical expectations of PD based on the framework of Nipperess and Matsen (2013; Appendix D)

Biogeographical pool of species

First we defined zoogeographic regions following the methodology of Holt et al. (2013). To do so we computed phylogenetic beta diversity values between each pair of grid cells from the Eurasian continent by using an index independent of species richness (Lennon et al. 2001, Holt et al. 2013):

$$\beta = 1 - \frac{a}{\min(b,c) + a} \quad (2)$$

where a = the branch lengths shared by the two grid cells and b and c represent the branch lengths unique to each grid cell, with $\min(b,c)$ representing the minimum value between b and c .

Then we identified groups of grid cells (zoogeographic regions) using the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA, function `hclust` in R; R Development Core Team 2014). We varied the number of delimited zoogeographic regions from 1 to 30 (see Appendix E for examples). We then used these regions to construct a biogeographical null model of the PDAR.

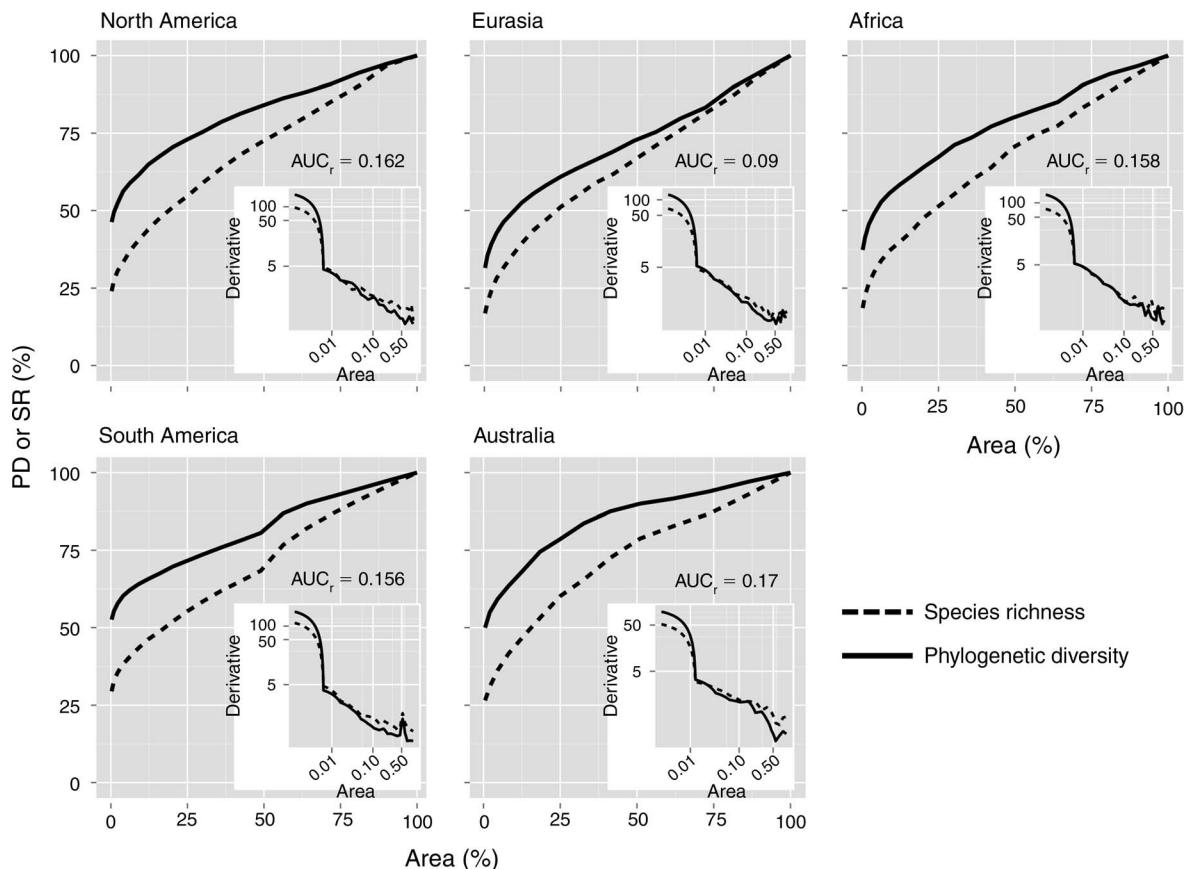


FIG. 3. Observed rescaled median SARs and median PDARs. For each continent, we report the SAR and the PDAR rescaled by the value of the maximum SR and PD, respectively. The two curves are both expressed in percentage of maximum diversity and thus are directly comparable. We also report the corresponding AUC_r values (see Fig. 2). In the lower-right corner subplots, we show the corresponding local derivatives.

While we were shuffling species within the entire continental pool of species in the previous null model, we shuffled here species within the pool of species belonging to a specific zoogeographic region. Because all species are not restricted to one unique zoogeographic region, we adopted a probabilistic approach where, for each randomization independently, a zoogeographic region k is assigned to a species i with a probability of $P_{i,k}$ depending on its coverage $C_{i,k}$ in this region with respect to its total coverage across all regions

$$P_{i,k} = \frac{C_{i,k}}{\sum_K C_{i,k}} \quad (3)$$

where K represents the entire set of regions (from 2 to 30). For each randomization, we computed a null PDAR and tested significance by comparing the observed PDAR and 100 null PDAR for each number of zoogeographic regions defined.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To visually compare the PDAR and the SAR of mammals we standardized the two curves by the

maximal diversity reached in the data set. The two resulting curves are thus expressed as the percentage of maximal diversity and are directly comparable (Fig. 3). We show that PDARs approach their maximum faster than SARs for all continents (Fig. 3). To describe the rate of PD and SR accumulation as a function of area, we estimated local derivatives and show that PDARs accelerate much faster than SARs for small areas and that this tendency reverses for large areas (see subplots of Fig. 3). We show that the power model is among the best models to fit the data set (Appendix F) but fails to model the upward acceleration of PD on a log-log scale (e.g., Fig. 4). The slope of the power model is lower for the PDARs than for the SAR ($z_{PDAR} < z_{SAR}$, see Appendix G). The last point has been previously reported at this scale (Mazel et al. 2014) but with a different PDAR/SAR reconstruction based on non-overlapping ecoregions (Olson et al. 2001). This result is thus independent of the sampling procedure and approaches, and is, overall, not surprising. Indeed the SAR fully represents the PDAR in the case of a star phylogeny (in this case, the PD is proportional to SR). As the phylogenetic tree departs from a star phylogeny

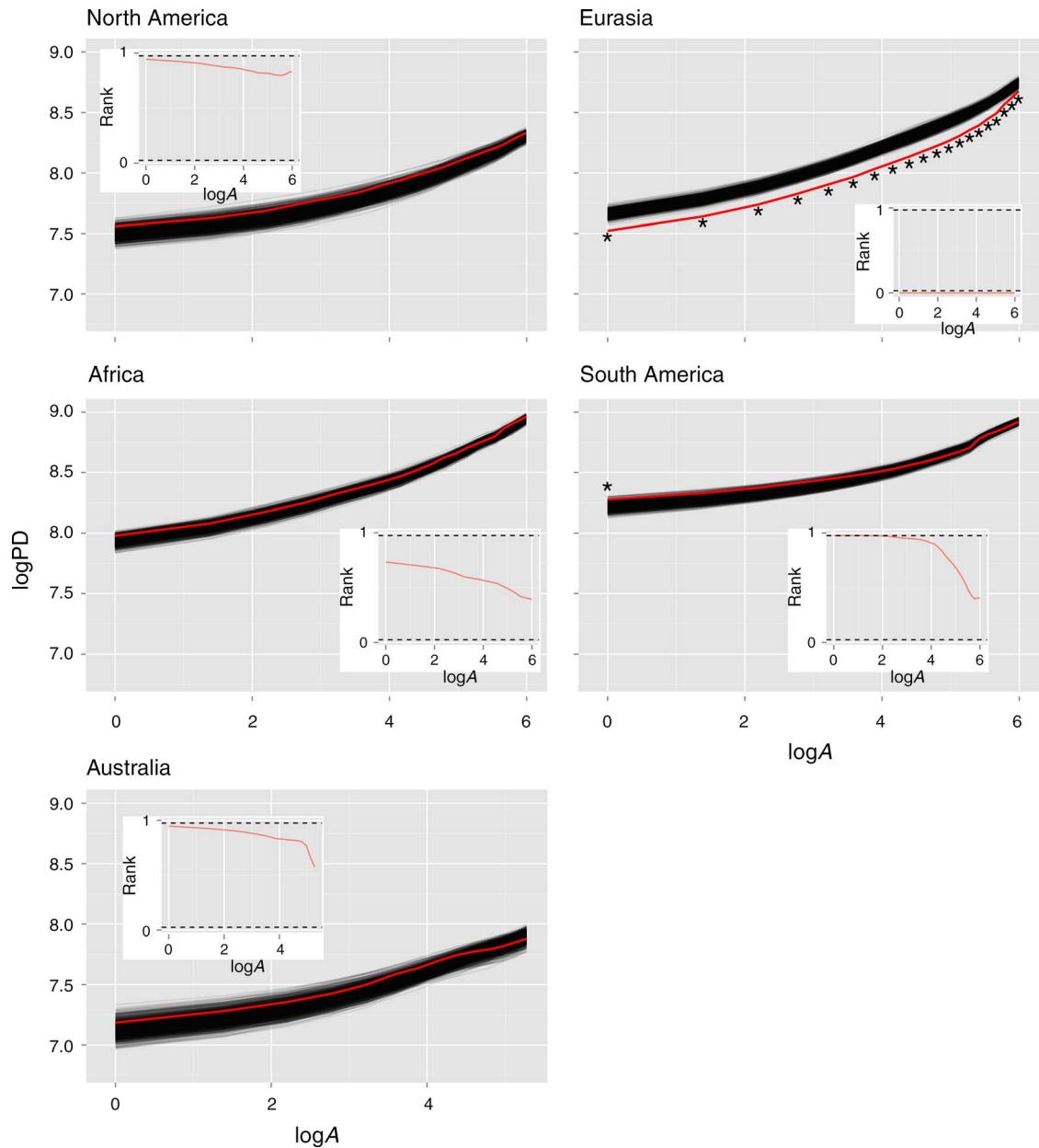


FIG. 4. Median PDARs obtained from the continental null model. For each continent, the envelope corresponding to 1000 null continental PDARs is shown in black while the observed PDAR is in red. In the corner of each panel, we plot the relative rank of observed PD value within the null PD distribution as a function of $\log(\text{area})$ ($\log A$). For each spatial scale, it is computed as the proportion of null PD values that are lower than the observed value (a value of 0.5 indicates that observed PD equals the median of the null distribution). The dashed lines correspond to a relative rank of 2.5% and 97.5%. When the computed relative ranks fall out of this 95% envelope, a star is reported in the main panel (see Appendix H for the relative ranks associated with power model parameters).

(i.e., as some branches start to be shared between species), the relationship between PD and SR becomes concave and the PDAR deviates from the SAR (because redundancies between species are introduced, see Fig. 1A).

As a consequence, AUC_r values are positive but we find that they differ across continents (see Figs. 2 and 3). The use of the SAR to predict species extinction from

habitat loss (Pimm and Raven 2000, Thomas et al. 2004, Halley et al. 2014) has been questioned (He and Hubbell 2011) but remains useful (e.g., Axelsen et al. 2013, Hanski and Zurita 2013, Matias et al. 2014), especially when species ranges are randomly distributed (He and Hubbell 2011). If we assume that the SAR and the PDAR can be used to predict the loss of species and PD, respectively, through habitat loss (Mazel et al. 2014), the

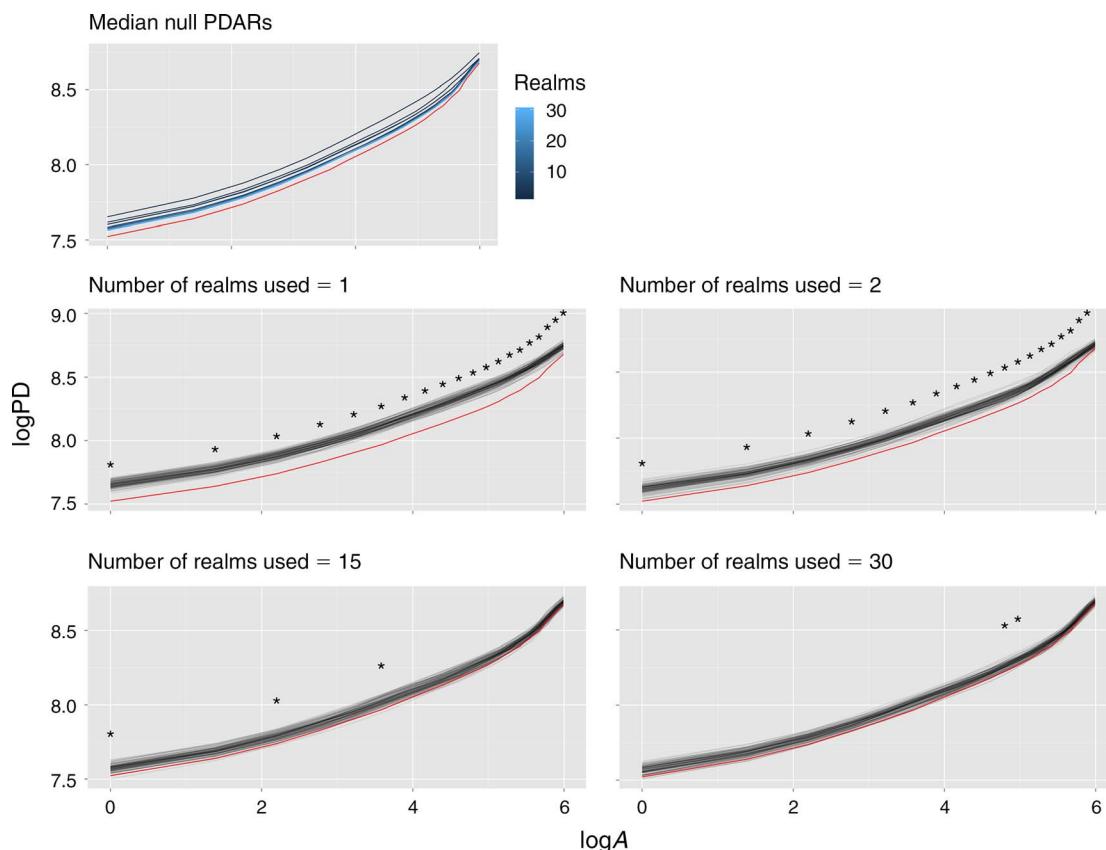


FIG. 5. Median PDARs obtained from the Eurasian biogeographical null models. The biogeographical null models shuffle the tips of the phylogeny according to biogeographical origin (see *Methods*). We present the results from null models containing different numbers of biogeographical regions. The top panel presents the median PDAR obtained for different numbers of biogeographical regions. The four other panels represent the details of four biogeographic null models that used 1 (continental null model), 2, 15, or 30 biogeographic regions, respectively. The star indicates that the relative rank of the observed PD value within the null PD distribution is lower (or higher) than 0.025 (or 0.975) for a given area.

AUC_r (Fig. 2) then represents the relative robustness of PD (compared to SR) to habitat destruction. In this case, we show, for example, that the Australian PD will be relatively more robust, at the continental scale, to habitat loss than the Eurasian PD (note that, at the global scale, the evolutionary history of Australia is unique; Holt et al. 2013). This difference could be explained by the different structure of the two trees (see Fig. 1A) and/or by different eco-evolutionary processes leading to a different spatial pattern of PD (e.g., either clustered, random, or overdispersed; see Fig. 1B). Teasing apart these two mechanisms called for using appropriate null models.

For all continents except Eurasia, and for most of the spatial scales, we find that PD values are not significantly different from those obtained with the null model randomizing the phylogenetic relationships among species (Fig. 4 and Appendix H). This means that the only significant phylogenetic effect that influences the PDAR is the shape of the observed continental tree. Several non-mutually exclusive hypotheses can be proposed to explain this result. First, we use here an

averaged phylogenetic structure across a whole continent and different assembly processes may have been mixed. In North America, for example, we could expect a phylogenetic clustering at high elevation in the Rocky Mountains (e.g., due to environmental filtering) while overdispersion could be found in the lowland forest (e.g., due to competition; Graham et al. 2009), resulting in higher MAD of PD than expected by chance (see Appendix I). Such distribution may likely compensate each other during the sampling process, resulting in a null random distribution when averaged across assemblages. Second, the spatial and phylogenetic scale of our analysis is perhaps too large to detect any effect of repulsion/attraction of species. Indeed, at the smallest resolution we have used (110×110 km), co-occurring species do not necessarily interact with each other (probably because this scale is still very large) and may, for example, use different habitats (Araújo and Rozenfeld 2014, but see Cardillo 2011). Also, specific group of mammals may show repulsion or attraction while others not, blurring the overall pattern (see, e.g., Pedersen et al. 2014).

The Eurasian PDAR is, however, much lower than expected by chance at all spatial scales, indicating phylogenetic clustering (Fig. 4 and Appendix H). This continent is a mosaic of biogeographic realms with diverging biogeographic history (Wallace 1876, Holt et al. 2013) and thus mixes very different faunas: there are many strict Palearctic species (e.g., the wolverine, *Gulo gulo*) and strict oriental species (e.g., the Asiatic elephant, *Elephas maximus*). The continental null model mixes all these faunas and thus tends to overestimate the expected median PD of assemblages. For example, *Elephas maximus* represents the only Afrotherian species present in our data set so it has a very high distinctiveness at the continental scale and will considerably increase relative local PD. We consequently develop a biogeographical null model that takes into account the historical origin of taxa. We show that this null model progressively decreases the random PD expectations (Fig. 5) and that 15 realms were sufficient to correctly predict most of the spatial scale median PD (Fig. 5 and Appendices J–K). Our approach may sound circular at first glance because we use spatial and phylogenetic data (to define zoogeographic regions) to explain spatial and phylogenetic data (the PDAR). Nevertheless, the aim of any null models is rather to ask how much synthetic information we need from the initial data to parsimoniously explain this data. The null model is necessarily constrained by the initial data but if this constrain is too high (i.e., a lot of the initial data is used) the null model will necessarily be plausible (the “narcissus effect”; Gotelli 2001). Here our aim is to quantify how much synthetic information is needed to parsimoniously explain the Eurasian PDAR. Finally, it is not directly possible to conclude from the biogeographic null model that the effect we detected is purely historic, i.e., that it derives from the mix of fauna due to continental drift. Indeed Eurasia has also a steep north-south gradient in term of climate (and SR) and we cannot reject the hypothesis of a phylogenetic clustering due to environmental filtering (Webb et al. 2002). One potential future avenue could be to contrast the relative predictive power of biogeographic null model vs. a climate based null model.

We also find that PD at small scale tends to be higher than expected by chance for South America (phylogenetic overdispersion, Fig. 4), leading to a significantly low z value for the PDAR ($P < 0.005$, Appendix H). This observation may result from allopatric speciation events and/or competition at the smallest scale (Pigot and Tobias 2013) but more work is needed to test these hypotheses. For Eurasia, on the contrary, we observe that small-scale PD tends to be relatively lower than expected by chance (phylogenetic clustering, Fig. 4) leading to a high z value ($P < 0.1$, Appendix H). This could be a possible product of environmental filtering occurring only at small scale.

These last two results shed light on the discrepancy between observed and null AUC_r (Appendix L). Indeed

the robustness of PD to habitat loss depends on the structure of the phylogenetic tree (represented here by the null model mean expectation) and also on the spatial pattern of phylogenetic structure (represented by the departure of the observed PDAR from the mean null model, see subplots in Fig. 4). We indeed find that Australian observed AUC_r is higher than predicted by the continental tree structure because small scale Australian PD tends to be relatively higher than expected by chance (see Appendix L), providing a buffer against the loss of PD. In contrast, observed Eurasia AUC_r is lower than expected by the tree shape (see Appendix L). This is because Eurasian PD is disproportionately low at small scale, reducing the area between the PDAR and the SAR compared to random expectations and thus being more vulnerable to habitat reduction. Overall, we demonstrate that the additional robustness of PD to habitat loss compared to species richness is determined by the phylogenetic tree shape but also depends on the spatial structure of PD.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

F. Mazel would like to thank Loïc Chalmandrier for helpful discussions on null models, Petr Keil for discussions on the PDARs, and two anonymous referees for helpful comments on a previous version of the manuscript. The research leading to these results had received funding from the European Research Council under the European Community’s Seven Framework Programme FP7/2007–2013 Grant Agreement no. 281422 (TEEMBIO). F. Mazel, W. Thuiller, and J. Renaud belong to the Laboratoire d’Écologie Alpine, which is part of Labex OSUG@2020 (ANR10 LABX56).

LITERATURE CITED

- Araújo, M., and A. Rozenfeld. 2014. The geographic scaling of biotic interactions. *Ecography* 37:406–415.
- Axelsen, J., U. Roll, L. Stone, and A. Solow. 2013. Species–area relationships always overestimate extinction rates from habitat loss: comment. *Ecology* 94:761–763.
- Belmaker, J., and W. Jetz. 2011. Cross-scale variation in species richness–environment associations. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 20:464–474.
- Bininda-Emonds, O. R. P., M. Cardillo, K. E. Jones, R. D. E. MacPhee, R. M. D. Beck, R. Grenyer, S. A. Price, R. A. Vos, J. L. Gittleman, and A. Purvis. 2007. The delayed rise of present-day mammals. *Nature* 446:507–512.
- Cadotte, M. W., B. J. Cardinale, and T. H. Oakley. 2008. Evolutionary history and the effect of biodiversity on plant productivity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 105:17012–17017.
- Cardillo, M. 2011. Phylogenetic structure of mammal assemblages at large geographical scales: linking phylogenetic community ecology with macroecology. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B* 366:2545–2553.
- Faith, D. P. 1992. Conservation evaluation and phylogenetic diversity. *Biological Conservation* 61:1–10.
- Fritz, S. A., O. R. P. Bininda-Emonds, and A. Purvis. 2009. Geographical variation in predictors of mammalian extinction risk: big is bad, but only in the tropics. *Ecology Letters* 12:538–549.
- Gotelli, N. 2001. Research frontiers in null model analysis. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 10:337–343.
- Graham, C. H., J. L. Parra, C. Rahbek, and J. A. McGuire. 2009. Phylogenetic structure in tropical hummingbird communities. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 106 (Supplement):19673–19678.

- Guilhaumon, F., O. Gimenez, K. J. Gaston, and D. Mouillot. 2008. Taxonomic and regional uncertainty in species-area relationships and the identification of richness hotspots. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 105: 15458–15463.
- Halley, J., V. Sgardeli, and K. Triantis. 2014. Extinction debt and the species–area relationship: a neutral perspective. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 23:113–123.
- Hanski, I., and G. Zurita. 2013. Species–fragmented area relationship. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 110:12715–12720.
- Hardy, O. 2008. Testing the spatial phylogenetic structure of local communities: statistical performances of different null models and test statistics on a locally neutral community. *Journal of Ecology* 96:914–926.
- He, F., and S. Hubbell. 2011. Species–area relationships always overestimate extinction rates from habitat loss. *Nature* 473: 368–371.
- Helmus, M. R., and A. R. Ives. 2012. Phylogenetic diversity–area curves. *Ecology* 91:31–43.
- HilleRisLambers, J., P. B. Adler, W. S. Harpole, J. M. Levine, and M. M. Mayfield. 2012. Rethinking community assembly through the lens of coexistence theory. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* 43:227–248.
- Holt, B. G., et al. 2013. An update of Wallace's zoogeographic regions of the world. *Science* 339:74–78.
- Huang, S., P. R. Stephens, and J. L. Gittleman. 2012. Traits, trees and taxa: global dimensions of biodiversity in mammals. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* 279:4997–5003.
- Hubbell, S. 2001. *The unified neutral theory of biodiversity and biogeography*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, USA.
- Jenkins, C. N., S. L. Pimm, and L. N. Joppa. 2013. Global patterns of terrestrial vertebrate diversity and conservation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 110: E2602–2610.
- Kadmon, R., and O. Allouche. 2007. Integrating the effects of area, isolation, and habitat heterogeneity on species diversity: a unification of island biogeography and niche theory. *American Naturalist* 170:443–454.
- Leitner, W., and M. Rosenzweig. 1997. Nested species–area curves and stochastic sampling: a new theory. *Oikos* 503–512.
- Lennon, J. J., P. Koleff, J. J. D. Greenwood, and K. J. Gaston. 2001. The geographical structure of British bird distributions: diversity, spatial turnover and scale. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 70:966–979.
- MacArthur, R., and E. Wilson. 1967. *The theory of island biogeography*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, USA.
- Matias, M., D. Gravel, F. Guilhaumon, P. Desjardins-Proulx, M. Loreau, T. Münkemüller, and N. Mouquet. 2014. Estimates of species extinctions from species–area relationships strongly depend on ecological context. *Ecography* 37: 001–012.
- Mayfield, M., and J. Levine. 2010. Opposing effects of competitive exclusion on the phylogenetic structure of communities. *Ecology Letters* 13:1085–1093.
- Mazel, F., F. Guilhaumon, N. Mouquet, V. Devictor, D. Gravel, J. Renaud, R. L. Marcus Vinicius Cianciaruso, J. A. F. Diniz-Filho, D. Mouillot, and W. Thuiller. 2014. Multifaceted diversity–area relationships reveal global hotspots of mammalian species, trait and lineage diversity. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 23:836–847.
- Morlon, H., D. W. Schilck, J. A. Bryant, P. A. Marquet, A. G. Rebelo, C. Tauss, B. J. M. Bohannan, and J. L. Green. 2011. Spatial patterns of phylogenetic diversity. *Ecology Letters* 14: 141–149.
- Mouquet, N., et al. 2012. Ecophylogenetics: advances and perspectives. *Biological Reviews* 87:769–785.
- Nipperess, D., and F. Matsen. 2013. The mean and variance of phylogenetic diversity under rarefaction. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 4:566–572.
- O'Dwyer, J., S. Kembel, and J. Green. 2012. Phylogenetic diversity theory sheds light on the structure of microbial communities. *PLoS Computational Biology* 8:e1002832.
- Olson, D. M., et al. 2001. Terrestrial ecoregions of the world: a new map of life on Earth. *BioScience* 51:933–938.
- Pavoine, S., and M. B. Bonsall. 2011. Measuring biodiversity to explain community assembly: a unified approach. *Biological Reviews* 86:792–812.
- Pedersen, R. Ø., B. Sandel, and J.-C. Svenning. 2014. Macroecological evidence for competitive regional-scale interactions between the two major clades of mammal carnivores (Feliformia and Caniformia). *PLoS ONE* 9:e100553.
- Pereira, H. M., et al. 2010. Scenarios for global biodiversity in the 21st century. *Science* 330:1496–1501.
- Pigot, A. L., and J. A. Tobias. 2013. Species interactions constrain geographic range expansion over evolutionary time. *Ecology Letters* 16:330–338.
- Pimm, S., and P. Raven. 2000. Biodiversity: extinction by numbers. *Nature* 403:843–845.
- R Development Core Team. 2014. *R: a language and environment for statistical computing*. R Project for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. www.r-project.org
- Rodrigues, A. S. L., and K. J. Gaston. 2002. Maximising phylogenetic diversity in the selection of networks of conservation areas. *Biological Conservation* 105:103–111.
- Rosenzweig, M. L. 1995. *Species diversity in space and time*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Scheiner, S. M. 2003. Six types of species–area curves. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 12:441–447.
- Storch, D., P. Keil, and W. Jetz. 2012. Universal species-area and endemics-area relationships at continental scales. *Nature* 488:78–81.
- Thomas, C. D., et al. 2004. Extinction risk from climate change. *Nature* 427:145–148.
- Triantis, K. A., F. Guilhaumon, and R. J. Whittaker. 2012. The island species–area relationship: biology and statistics. *Journal of Biogeography* 39:215–231.
- Tucker, C., and M. Cadotte. 2013. Unifying measures of biodiversity: understanding when richness and phylogenetic diversity should be congruent. *Diversity and Distributions* 19:845–854.
- Wallace, A. 1876. *The geographical distribution of animals*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Webb, C. O., D. D. Ackerly, M. A. McPeck, and M. J. Donoghue. 2002. Phylogenies and community ecology. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* 33: 475–505.
- Whittaker, R. J., M. B. Araújo, J. Paul, R. J. Ladle, J. E. M. Watson, K. J. Willis, and P. Jepsen. 2005. Conservation biogeography: assessment and prospect. *Diversity and Distributions* 11:3–23.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

Ecological Archives

Appendices A–L are available online: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1890/14-1858.1.sm>